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Notes on the Meaning and Use

OF SOME

LATIN

Adverbs and Conjunctions

AS EXEMPLIFIED IN

CICERO'S DE SENECTUTE.

ITHACA, N. Y.
ANDRUS & CHURCH,
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LATIN ADVERBS AND CONJUNCTIONS.

THE following notes, in the preparation of which defiuitions and statements of usage have been drawn freely from the standard grammars and dictionaries, are intended to aid the student in beginning the study of the Latin parti-His principal books of reference for this subject must be Harpers' Latin Dictionary and Riddle and Arnold's English-Latin Lexicon. Much useful information may be gathered from the following Latin grammars: Allen and Greenough, §§ 148-158; Roby, §§ 2193-2257; Madvig, §§ 432-462; Zumpt, §§ 331-358. To the advanced student Draeger's Historische Syntax offers a very valuable thesaurus of classified examples. It is important that the student observe for himself the actual Latin usage, and collect examples from the author whom he is reading. As a practical aid in this work, alternate pages of the Notes have been left blank for manuscript additions.

Figures enclosed in parentheses refer to sections of the *De Senectute*; if preceded by S., they refer also to Stickney's Commentary. R. = Roby. M. = Madvig. Z. = Zumpt. A. and G. = Allen and Greenough.

Cornell University, March, 1888.

ADVERBS AND CONJUNCTIONS.

ADVERSATIVE.

"Adversative conjunctions contrast the meaning, while they connect the sentences." R. § 2208. They often introduce sentences grammatically independent.

Ast, an old form of at, is found in legal language, Virgil, and post-classical poets.

At (S. 21, 35, 68), but, on the contrary, introduces a statement either sharply antithetical (54, cf. 17 at vero), or simply different, but with emphasis (49). It often introduces an anticipated objection, but one may say, or the answer to such objection, but I reply (33, 65).

Atqui $(at+qui=but \ any \ how)$ (S. 6, 59) is an emphatic at, but yet, (81). It sometimes introduces a fresh step in argument (66).

Autem, on the other hand, however, is a weak adversative, indicating contrast or transition rather than contradiction. Its position is usually second, rarely third in its clause. It is used in contrasts (1, 34, 36 note quidem . autem = $\mu \dot{\epsilon} \nu$. $\delta \dot{\epsilon}$ 70, 83); in transition (3); in parenthesis (7); in successive steps of reasoning (71); to throw emphasis on pronouns (4, 8, 17).

Sed (S. 2, 56, 69, 80), in its full meaning, contradicts or limits a preceding statement. It often merely indicates transition to a new subject or resumption of an old one (2, 32, 56, 67, 69); after negatives it limits or corrects the preceding statement (1, 17, 79, 84). Notice its use after a negative to introduce a strengthened statement, especially with etiam: non solum. sed etiam (12,



28, 64, 75); nōn modo.. sed etiam (2, 17, 21, 25, 37, 44, 51, 59, 61); nec sōlum.. sed etiam (77, 85). Cf. nōn modo.. vērum etiam (9, 26, 57, 84).

Verum, stronger than sed, decidedly corrects what has gone before, or serves for transition.

Vero (S. 11), but in fact, however, is a strongly corroborative adversative. It is always placed after a word, on which it throws special emphasis. Notice the frequency of its use after personal pronouns (6, 11, 32, 40, 46, 47, 80, 84).

Tamen, nevertheless, yet, is used without any other particle (16); with et, and for all that (1, 31); after a concessive particle, yet (44); after a conditional particle (38); with sed, nevertheless (5, 10, 32); after nec = sed non (13). Notice et tamen opposed to something omitted, and even if this were not so, yet (16).

Etsi (S. 2), and yet, at the beginning of a sentence may correct a preceding statement (29).

Quamquam corrective (S. 1) has a similar use (9, 24, 47, 51, 69).

Corrections may also be made by contradiction, $n\bar{o}n$ sed (3); and by substitution, aut potius (35).

Quod contra, as regards which thing on the contrary, whereas (84).

OF AFFIRMATION AND CERTAINTY.

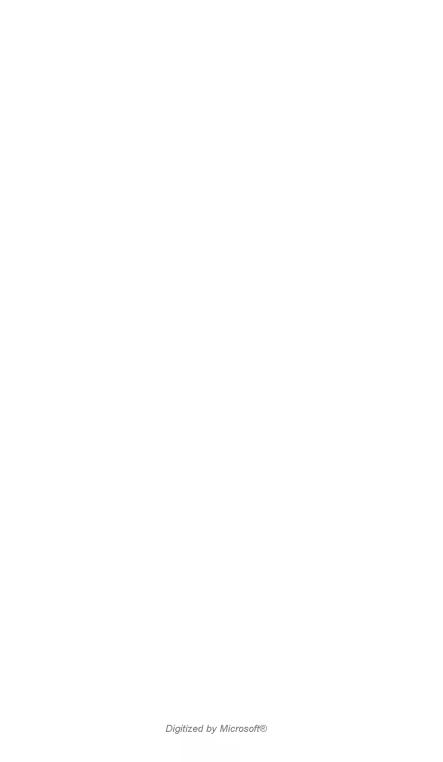
Certo, with certainty, found only in the comic poets and sometimes in Cicero (1, 2).

Certe, found in all writers, is sometimes strongly affirmative like *certō*, *surely*, *certainly* (11, 50, 66, 67, 74); but it is more commonly restrictive, *this much certainly*, i. e. *at least* (2, 6, 84).

Ne (S. 33), $\nu\alpha i$, surely, is joined only with personal and demonstrative pronouns, and usually, as in (33), introduces an apodosis.

Nempe (nam + pe), assuredly (Cic. Fin. 4, 15, 41).

Nimirum $(n\bar{\imath} + m\bar{\imath}rum)$, doubtless, introduces an assertion as indisputable. It is often used in irony (Cic. Brut. 21, 82).



Profecto (pro + factum), assuredly, certainly (13, 43).

Qui, old ablative of the indefinite pronoun, somehow, surely. It is used by the ante-classical writers with particles of emphasis and assurance. (Plaut. Mil. 779). In classical Latin it is seen only in atqui and quippe.

Quidem (S. 2, 10, 11, 26, 83), indeed, to be sure, at least, is always postpositive, emphasizing the preceding word or contrasting it with others. It is generally attached to pronouns, even when another word is to be emphasized (M. § 489, b.) It is often restrictive or concessive, especially when followed by sed or autem. It sometimes corresponds to $\mu \acute{\epsilon} \nu$ as autem does to $\delta \acute{\epsilon}$ (36). For the use of ne. . quidem see Negative particles.

Equidem, certainly, to be sure, as far as I am concerned, is generally used with a verb of the first person singular (21, 25, 26, 28, 32, 83).

Quippe, in fact, for in fact, is a corroborative particle often used with causal particles and relatives (Nep. praef. 4, Dion 2, 3).

Saltem restrictive = certe, at least.

Sane intensive or restrictive, well, truly, doubtless, very, indeed, to be sure (6, 16, 83, 84).

Scilicet (scire licet=you may be sure), naturally, evidently, of course (26). It is often used in irony.

Videlicet (vidère licet=it is easy to see), evidently, clear-ly (20, 44). Like scilicet, it is sometimes ironical.

Utique (uti+que), a restrictive particle of confirmation, any how, at all events, especially (Nep. Epam. 2, 3).

Vero, in truth, surely (59). Distinguish carefully the adversative use.

CAUSAL.

Quod (S 7), accusative of respect of the relative pronoun (cf. $h\bar{o}c$. quod 60), introduces a definite and conclusive reason (Z. § 346). It takes the indicative, like quia, quoniam, and $quand\bar{o}$, except in indirect discourse (7, 15, 44). Notice its use in (39), with Stickney's note. For the use of quod with $m\bar{v}ror$ see (3, 4, 43).



Quia (S. 13), probably accusative plural of respect, has the same meaning as *quod causal*, giving an objective reason (9, 13, 44, 45, 78).

Quoniam (quom + iam) gives the ground or motive, i. e. a subjective reason (6, 44, 56, 59, 84).

Quando, literally when, transferred to the idea of cause = quoniam. This use is rare except in Livy, the poets, and late writers

Si quidem (S. 39), if indeed, since, denotes a reason implied in a concession which has been made (41, 56).

Cum:—For cum causal and cum concessive, see the special treatment of the cum-clauses.

CONCESSIVE.

Quamquam introduces admitted facts, and is regularly followed by the indicative (30, 44). Distinguish quamquam correctivum.

Quamvis $(quam + v\bar{\imath}s, properly as much as you will)$ introduces concessions made for argument's sake, and is regularly followed by the subjunctive (25, 29, 67). Notice the adverbial use of $quamv\bar{\imath}s$ (4).

Quidem concessive (2, 8, 27, 32). See quidem under Affirmative particles.

Sane (84). See Affirmative particles.

Etsi and etiamsi introduce clauses which are grammatically conditions (48, 79).

Tametsi (tamen + etsi), like the other concessive particles, is often followed by the correlative tamen.

CONDITIONAL.

Si (locative, old form sei), originally demonstrative=in that case, in that way, so, early assumed the force of a relative, and may be correlative with a demonstrative, e. g. ita . . sī, on this condition . . if (S. 38). More frequently it has no correlative, and introduces a condition on the fulfillment of which the truth of the apodosis depends. The condition may be fact-assuming, either present, past, or future, in which case the indicative mode is



used (1, 3, 6, 38, 49, 71); or ideal in the future, in which case the primary tenses of the subjunctive are employed (83); or ideal in the present or past, and therefore contrary to fact, in which case the secondary tenses of the subjunctive are employed (4, 7, 8, 19, 80).

Nisi, unless, introduces an exception to a general statement (6, 11, 19, 21, 36, 52). After nihil aliud, etc., nisi = but. In the combinations nisi forte, nisi vērō, nisi is usually ironical (18, 33). Rarely nisi is adversative = only that, but, however (Caes. B. G. 5, 13).

Ni as a conditional particle = nisi, and is especially frequent in legal language and in poetry (35, 67, 82).

Si non, if not, introduces a negative protasis, emphasis being thrown on non. Notice the difference between memoria minuitur nisi eam exerceas and memoria minuitur sī eam non exerceas.

Sin $(s\bar{\imath}+ne)$, but if, if on the other hand, is generally found in the second member of an alternative sentence, with $s\bar{\imath}$ preceding (85).

Etiam si conditional (21).

Quod si, touching which matter if, serves to connect the condition with what has gone before. The relation may be adversative, but if (46, 48), or not, now if, and if (85).

OF COMPARISON AND SIMILARITY.

Ut ($ut\bar{\imath}$, utei, *quotei) (S. 7, 12, 17, 26, 63) is an interrogative and relative adverb of manner, which passes into various uses as a connective. As interrogative = how, generally indirect (26, 31). As relative = as, often without a demonstrative, especially in parentheses (31, 32, 85). Notice its use in limitation to particular circumstances = for, considering (12). In formal comparisons the ut-clause is regularly followed by a corresponding clause with $s\bar{\imath}c$ or ita, instead of similarity, the thought involved in the comparison may be that of contrast, opposition, or concession (1, 26, 36, 38, 48, 65). In an abridged comparison the correlative $s\bar{\imath}c$ or ita may precede (10, 81). Notice $simil\bar{e}s$. ut $s\bar{\imath}$ (17), $s\bar{\imath}c$ ut cum (71).



Sicut is common in condensed comparisons without a separate verb (2, 14, 46, 47, 65). It sometimes introduces a term of comparison = tamquam.

Velut, as, as it were, introduces comparisons, regularly without a correlative (Nep. Hann. 1, 3).

Velut (si), just as if, introduces hypothetical comparative clauses. For the mode and tense of these clauses, which have the form of ideal future conditions, see A. and G. § 312. This construction with velut sī is not found in Cicero (Caes. B. G. 1, 32).

Quasi $(quam + s\bar{\imath})$, as if, as it were, is rarely used in the comparison of two facts = ut (71). Usually it is employed, like velut $s\bar{\imath}$ and tanquam, to join an assumed comparison to the main thought. A correlative ita or $s\bar{\imath}c$ may or may not accompany it (12, 82). The comparison may be expressed in participial form (26). Quasi often stands before a word that is used figuratively (5, 47, 51, 52, 77, 83). With a participle quasi may assume a causal signification (22).

Tamquam (tam+quam), as much as, as if, as it were, has nearly the same range of uses as quasi. Introducing hypothetical comparisons, it may be followed by $s\bar{i}$ (6). Tamquam with participle (49); with single words or phrases accompanied by ita (35, 84); without correlative (5, 36, 37, 64, 70, 83); with metaphorical expressions (49, 53, 85).

COPULATIVE OR ADDITIVE.

"Copulative conjunctions are those which connect both the sentences and their meaning." R. § 2194.

Et (S. 2, 13, 25) simply connects coördinate words or sentences. Notice that the Roman seldom said et nihil, et nūllus, et numquam, but used instead nec quidquam, nec ūllus, nec umquam. After an affirmative clause, a negative clause carrying out the same thought is introduced by et (-que, āc), where the English idiom leads us to expect an adversative particle (28 et = sed tamen). In the enumeration of a series, each member is connected with the



preceding by a conjunction (54), or no conjunction is used (23, 52, 56), or -que is added to the last member. Et sometimes = etiam, also.

-Que, enclitic = Gr. $\tau \varepsilon$, Skt. ca, often has the same force as et. It is used as a close connective, adding the second member as a supplement to the first, or uniting two words into a pair. Notice the use of a conjunction when the cognomina only of the consuls are given in dates (10, 14, 50), otherwise asyndeton (41).

Atque (S. 13) lays slightly greater stress on the second member = and besides (12, 13, 36, 43). A shorter form, $\bar{a}c$, is used only before consonants. After words of likeness and unlikeness, aequus, similis, $\bar{i}dem$, alius, etc., atque and $\bar{a}c$ are used with a comparative force = as, than.

Jam, further (56, 80).

The place of copulative conjunctions is often filled by the repetition of a word common to all the members (15, 23, 27, 40, 41, 58, 72).

Etiam and quoque, and also, with or without copulative conjunctions, add something new or important. Quoque follows the emphatic word (36, 46). Etiam generally precedes the emphatic word (8, 16, 28, 46, 66, 76, etc.), but it sometimes stands after it (46, 56, 67, 72, 83).

CORRELATIVE COPULATIVES.

Et .. et (S. 2), both . and, connects with emphasis on both members (1, 2, 10, 34, 37, 50). This use of et is not restricted to two members.

-Que. -que is the regular connective of a double relative, but is elsewhere rare, except in poetry (1).

Cum.. tum throws slight emphasis on the second member (4, 43, 53, 65).

Tum...tum = at one time...at another time (7, 45). Iam. iam is found with the same meaning.

For non solum . . vērum etiam, etc., see Adversative particles.



DISJUNCTIVES.

"Disjunctives connect the sentences, but disconnect their meaning." R. § 2216.

Aut indicates that the difference between the conceptions or propositions is real. It is used when the alternatives are mutually exclusive or merely different. After negatives and in questions implying a negative, it continues the negation (17, 50, 57, 61).

Aut aut gives special distinctness to the alternative, and is generally used of things mutually exclusive (31, 66, 67, 74). Notice the use of *aut potius* in correction of an expression (35).

Vel (old imperative of volo = take your choice) and its enclitic form -ve indicate that the difference is not real, but thought or willed, i. e. is one of expression rather than essence. Vel vel emphasizes the difference (55).

Vel and -ve are used in subordination to aut (57), see two examples). Vel = even is used, especially with superlatives, when the first alternative is omitted (4, 15, 75).

Sive (seu) = $vel\ si$ sometimes introduces an alternative condition, but it is more commonly a mere disjunctive particle, indicating that the distinction is arbitrary or unimportant (40).

Seu potius is used in corrections.

DEGREE.

Ita, so, often correlative with ut (35, 75).

Sic, so, correlative with ut (4).

Tam, so, so much, a demonstrative adverb often correlative with quam (40, 59); or followed by a consecutive clause with ut or $qu\bar{\imath}$ (24); or without correlative expressed (13).

Tantum, so much, only so much, merely, often correlative with quantum or ut (33, 36, 48).

Multum, accusative of extent, much (38).

Multo, ablative of measure of difference, by far, is used with comparatives (36, 67).

Plus, originally more of quantity (27, 83).



Magis (* magius), more of degree (10, 36, 45, 48).

Maxime, most (66).

Magno opere, literally with great labor, greatly, is used chiefly with verbs (44).

Quam, how, is interrogative and relative (22, 35, 59).

Valde (valide), strongly, very (83).

Nimis (ni + MA), beyond measure, excessively (31).

Parum, cognate with parvus, not sufficiently, too little (3, Nep. Att. 13, 6).

Satis = sat, enough, sufficiently (2, 48).

Paulum, accusative of extent, paulo, ablative of measure of difference, a little.

Paululum, accusative of extent, paululo, ablative of measure of difference, a very little (33).

Nihil, not at all (24). Cf. nequaquam, by no means (8), and neutiquam, in no wise (42).

Minus, less (24).

Paene, nearly, almost (14, 49, 78).

Fere, about, approximately; with negatives, hardly (24, 78). Ferme has the same meaning.

Plane, completely, entirely, in opposition to paene (32, 66, 81).

Omnino (S. 28, 45, 76), altogether and generally, as opposed to partly (24, 34, 46, 48, 66, 67); in general (9, 76); in concessions followed by sed (28, 45).

Praesertim, especially, particularly, adds an important argument or condition, often with cum or $s\bar{s}$ (6, 74, 85).

FINAL AND CONSECUTIVE.

Ut, $(ut\bar{\imath}, utei, *quotei)$, a locative of the interrogative-relative pronoun, is used in final and consecutive clauses both pure and substantive (42, 70; 83; 2, 4; 16, 38, 42, 52). It may be preceded by a correlative ita, $s\bar{\imath}c$, tam, etc. (14, 35, 78). Notice the use of the final ut-clause in parenthesis (6, 24). A final clause may indicate the design with which a statement is made (55). In expressions of negative purpose $n\bar{e}$ is more common than ut $n\bar{e}$, which is emphatic (52). For consecutive sentences the negative is $n\bar{o}n$ (36).



Quo, apparently ablative of means and measure of difference, is used in final clauses before a comparative (3, 41, 43).

Quominus (quō minus) is used after verbs of forbidding, hindering, and opposing in both final and consecutive clauses.

Quin $(qu\bar{\imath} + ne) = qu\bar{\imath}$ non is used as a nominative case in consecutive clauses after general negatives and questions implying a negative (Cic. Ac. 2, 7 Quis est $qu\bar{\imath}n$ cernat quanta vis sit in sensibus?)

Quin $(qu\bar{\imath} \text{ abl.} + ne)$ is used after verbs and phrases of opposing, refraining, neglecting, doubting, etc., if negative or interrogative implying a negative (31, 41, 78). Cf. the use of $qu\bar{\imath}n$ to correct a previous statement or to mark it as insufficient (63).

INTERROGATIVES.

Direct questions requiring an affirmative or a negative answer are generally introduced by interrogative particles. When these are omitted, a question expressed affirmatively expects a negative answer, and *vice versa* (15, 66).

-Ne enclitic, properly *not*, is appended to the first word of its clause. When this is a verb, *-ne* sometimes implies an affirmative answer (31), but commonly *-ne* makes no implication whatever. In indirect questions *-ne* is to be translated *whether* (47).

Nonne $(n\bar{o}n + ne)$ implies an affimative answer. It is used regularly only in direct questions (82, 83).

Num, properly now, in direct questions, implies a negative answer (19, 21, 23, 33, 56, 76); in indirect questions it makes no implication, and is to be translated whether (22).

In disjunctive or alternative questions the first member is introduced by utrum or -ne, or left without any interrogative sign; and the second member is introduced by an (anne) or, in dependent questions of which the first member has no interrogative particle, by -ne (33).

An (S. 15, 23, 29, 82) frequently introduces the second member of an alternative question, of which the first mem-



ber is omitted or is put in another form. It then puts a needless or unreasonable question, as if the speaker were driven to it, and its effect is often to meet an anticipated objection.

Anne (82 Kelsey's ed.) is rare, being used like an in the second member of an alternative question.

Haud scio an and nescio an in Cicero express an inclination to an affirmative opinion (56, 73). In later writers they express mere ignorance or doubt.

Necne and an non = or not.

Tandem and enclitic -nam, e. g. quisnam, appended to interrogative pronouns and adverbs give a tone of impatience or peremptoriness to the question (72, Nep. Them. 2). Cf. the use of ut (ante-classical) and utinam ($ut\bar{\imath} + nam$) in expressions of wish (19, 85).

OF EXPLANATION OR GROUND.

Nam, for, gives the ground of a preceding statement, or a mere explanation, like the English namely. It stands first in its clause (7, 11, 36, 55, 77, 85).

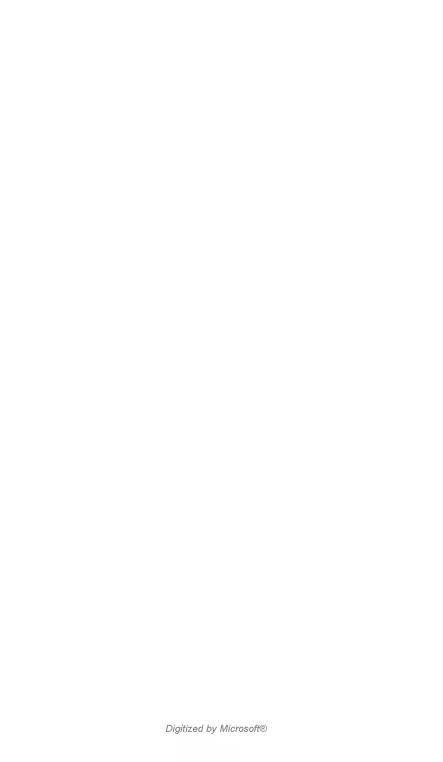
Enim (S. 7, 19, 39, 77) (e + nam) has practically the same meaning as nam, but stands after the first word of its clause, or after two or three closely connected words. It often introduces a corroborative statement $= in \ fact$, or a confirming example (1, 3, 37, 38, 41, 51).

Etenim (S. 15) and namque (cf. $n\alpha i \gamma \alpha \rho$) = for truly, are closer connectives than nam and enim, and are more restricted in use. They regularly stand at the beginning of the sentence (31, Lael. 19).

OF CONSEQUENCE.

Ergo, (ē rego, proceeding from this direction), therefore, is employed principally to introduce a logical consequence (34, 44, 47, 76). Notice its use in argumentative questioning (15), and in resuming an interrupted train of thought (55).

Igitur (S. 45) then, therefore, is a weaker ergō, and is used mostly in logical inference. It is especially frequent



after num in interrogations, and has the same resumptive force as $erg\bar{o}$. Its place is regularly second or third in the sentence (34, 35, 44, 50, 58, etc.)

Itaque, and so, under these circumstances, consequently, stands first in its clause (32, 34, 67, 71).

Note.—Ergō, igitur, itaque, cannot be subjoined to a copulative particle; and therefore = propterque eam causam, not et igitur.

Idcirco, for that reason, generally corresponds to a causal sentence (33).

Quocirca, relative, for which reason (5, 41).

Notice hoc . . quod (60).

Inde, thence, of place, time, and (rarely) circumstances, i. e. thence, thereupon, therefore.

Hinc, hence, of place and cause.

Proinde, literally forth from thence, of manner = just so, used, e. g. in proinde $\bar{a}c$ $s\bar{s}$, just as if; of consequence = hence, accordingly.

Quare, relative, wherefore (81).

Ideo, for that reason (Nep. Alc. 9, 5).

Propterea, on that account (Lael. 6).

Quapropter, on which account (Cic. Caecin. 27, 78).

NEGATIVE.

The shortest and most simple form of the Latin negative is ne $(n\bar{\imath})$, which is seen in ne. . quidem, neque, nefas, $n\bar{e}$ -quam, $n\bar{\imath}m\bar{\imath}rum$, $qu\bar{\imath}n$, etc.

"A negative which denotes a will, wish, or design, is expressed by $n\bar{e}$." M. § 456.

Non, older form noenum (10) = $ne + \bar{u}num$ (cf. Eng. not = naught = no whit), is the ordinary particle of negation.

Neque (nec) is conjunction as well as adverb. It is followed by an affirmative pronoun or adverb, whereas in English we use and followed by a negative (10, nec ūllī 29, nec umquam 32). Neque is generally used instead of non when enim, tamen, or vērō follows (13, 70, 83). Cf. non lubet enim (84), in which emphasis is given to the negation. To



introduce negative clauses of command, purpose, etc., especially after ut or $n\bar{e}$, $n\bar{e}ve$ (neu) is used instead of neque (Caes. B. G. 2, 21).

The formal union of two or more negative members is denoted by $neque\ (nec)$. $neque\ (nec)\ (8, 57)$. If the first member is affirmative, we have et. $nec\ (7)$. If the second member is affirmative, we have nec. $et\ (51, 53)$. Notice the omission of $n\bar{o}n$ after $n\bar{o}n\ modo\ (S. 34)$.

Two negatives coming together make an affirmative (29). Notice the difference between $n\bar{o}nnumquam = sometimes$, indefinite affirmation, and numquam $n\bar{o}n = always$, universal affirmation. In (S. 9) ne . quidem after numquam does not make an affirmation, but brings forward prominently a single idea subordinate to the general negation. So in (24) the general negative numquam is repeated distributively by $n\bar{o}n$. . $n\bar{o}n$. . $n\bar{o}n$.

Ne. quidem (S. 76), enclosing the emphatic word, signifies also not, not. either, or, when giving prominence to the object of negation, not even (8, 27, 29, 69, 78).

Haud (S. 83), not, is used with adjectives and adverbs, but rarely with verbs, except in the expression haud scio an (1, 4, 15, 56, 73, 83).

Nihil, $(ne + h\bar{\imath}lum)$, in no respect, is sometimes used with verbs in place of $n\bar{\imath}n$ (24).

Nullus $(ne + \bar{u}llus)$ is used in colloquial language in agreement with the noun as a strong negative in place of $n\bar{o}n$ (67, 79).

Nequaquam (8), haudquaquam = by no means, and neutiquam $(42) = in \ no \ wise$, are strong negatives.

Minus, especially in the phrase sī minus, is used in a softened negation (Cic. Div. 1, 14).

Minime in replies is an emphatic negative = not at all, by no means.

Vix = almost not, scarcely.

Parum = but little, not sufficiently.

Male attached to an adjective often gives it an opposite meaning, e. g. male sānus = īnsānus.



TEMPORAL.

Ante, before, adv. of space and time (61).

Antea, temporal, before, aforetime, formerly.

Antequam, relative, sooner than, before.

Adhuc, until now, expresses duration of time down to the present moment (28, 32).

Etiam nunc, even at this time, does not properly contain the idea of duration, but answers to the question when? It takes up time where adhuc leaves it.

Quando, when, is interrogative, relative, and (after $s\bar{s}$, $n\bar{e}$, num) indefinite (38, Lael. 67).

Quando causal = since. (Liv. 9, 8).

Aliquando, at some time or other, sometimes = nōnnum-quam (35), at length (71).

Interdum, now and then (1).

Interea = interim, meanwhile.

Cum (quom) is always a relative conjunction, frequently correlative with tum.

Iam (S. 56, 72), now, already, presently, implies transition or contrast. The following are some of its principal uses: iam = already (2); contrasted with a previous time (27, 33; 10, 12, 27, 31, 47; 51, 76); iam = presently (3); with a negative = no longer (38); in reference to the immediate past (61); iam = sooner than could be expected (78); in transition to a new point in argument (72, 74); adding a new particular = furthermore (56).

Iam vero (S. 80) marks transition with emphasis.

Iam diu, a long time already (18). See A. and G. \S 276 a.

Nunc (num + ce), the present time, either contrasted with past or future time or absolute (1, 10, 14, 18, 27). Venio nunc, introducing a new subject (51).

Dum (not properly a relative but = the while), when meaning as long as, signifies that the two actions are co-extensive, and takes the indicative except in oratio obliqua (77, 79, 85; 41, 80). Dum, when meaning while, indicates



that during the progress of the action of the dum-clause the main act begins, and it takes the historical present tense (Liv. 21, 7). Other tenses are rare (Nep. Hann. 2, 4). Dum meaning until gives the terminus ad quem for the main act, and takes the indicative if a fact serving as the actual boundary of an action is to be expressed; the subjunctive, if design or anticipation is to be expressed (Cic. Verr. I. 6, 16, Lael. 44). Dum of proviso (cf. Eng. so long as) takes the subjunctive (Cic. Catil. 1, 5, Rosc. Am. 119). In this use dum is often strengthened by modo, and may be replaced by modo alone (22, 33, 70).

Dudum $(di\bar{u} + dum)$, a while ago, indicates a time more or less remote. With iam $(iam \ d\bar{u}dum)$ it means now for a while, now for some time.

Diu (cognate with dies), a long time, long (13, 25, 32). Saepe, often (7, 14); strengthened by numero (4).

Frequens, repeated, frequent (44); in agreement with a noun instead of frequenter (38).

Semper, always (56).

Umquam, ever, used in conditions, questions, and especially with negatives (8, 13, 32).

Numquam (ne + umquam), never (2, 4, 11, 24, 51).

Hodie $(h\bar{o}c + di\bar{e})$, to-day, at the present time (34).

Cotidie quot + dies), daily, every day (46).

In dies (in + dies), from day to day, daily (45, 50).

Iterum, again, a second time (11). *

Vicissim (vicis), again, in turn (46, 57).

Modo (modus) (K. Lael. 6), just now, lately, generally of time more recent than that indicated by nuper (but cf. 27 and 61) (14, 27).

Nuper (novum + per), lately, formerly (61).

Quondam (quom + dam), at one time, once, generally of the past, but used also of the indefinite present and the future (62).

Olim (locative of olus = ille), at that time; hence, of the past, once upon a time, formerly; of the future, one day (Cic. Div. II. 25, 55, Plaut. Trin. 523; Verg. Aen. 1, 203).

Antehac, aforetime, in time past.



Tum, demonstrative, at that time, either alone (22) or corresponding to cum relative (59, 69). From the temporal meaning of tum is derived the additive, in which it is used either singly = further, besides (54), or correlative with cum = not only but also (4, 43, 53, 65).

Tum . . tum, at one time . at another time (7, 45).

Porro (S. 43), further on in space or time, reckoned in either direction, backward or forward.

Primo usually means in the beginning (53).

Primum, first (in a series) (4, 48).

Deinde $(d\bar{e} + inde)$, thereafter, next (10, 53); in a series, secondly (4, 48). Finally in enumerations is postremo.

Denique, finally, lastly, ending a period or a series (33, 40); used with tum = demum (82).

Post, behind, after, of place and time (10).

Postquam (post.. quam), after that, after (10).

Postea (post + ea), thereafter, afterwards.

Usque, all the way, or all the time, to or from a certain limit (38, 50, 60, 70). Used alone usque of time signifies constantly, ever (Hor. Odes 1, 17, 4).

Quoad, as long as, as much as, is followed by the indicative (11); but notice the subjunctive with the generalizing second person singular (72). Quoad meaning until, like donec, takes the indicative or the subjunctive according to the rule given for dum.

Ut temporal, as, when (Liv. 21, 11), is regularly followed by the indicative historical perfect or historical present. The same rule applies to postquam, ubi temporal, simulatque (simulac), ut primum, and cum primum.







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2

DEPARTMENT OF LATIN—CORNELL UNIVERSITY.

EXERCISES

IN THE

WRITING OF LATIN:

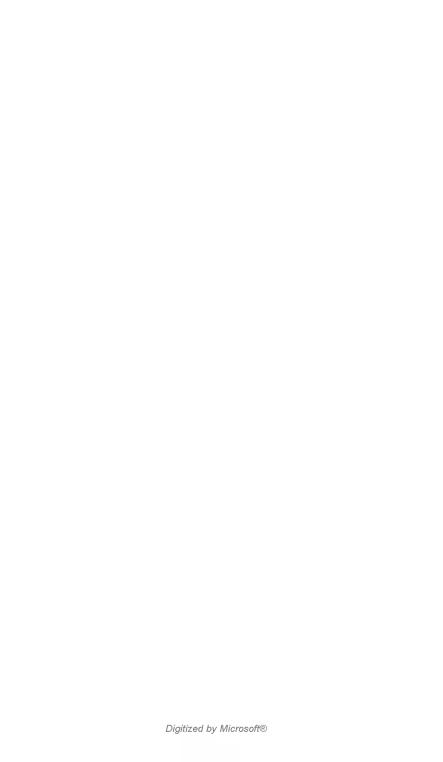
FOR THE USE OF THE FRESHMAN CLASS IN CORNELL UNIVERSITY.

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A. C. WHITE.

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THE work of writing Latin in Cornell University is carried on throughout the freshman year. closely connected with the reading and grammatical drill of the class, and is not to be regarded as an adequate preparation for turning all kinds of English composition into Latin. The student is expected to master the vocabulary. idioms, and constructions of every reading lesson so as to be able, in review, to translate the entire lesson at hearing, as read slowly and distinctly by the instructor or a fellow-At the beginning of this exercise, which usually occupies the first ten minutes of the hour, six students are sent to the blackboard with slips of paper containing English sentences to be translated into Latin. These involve only such words and idioms as have already occurred in the regular class work, and are carefully adapted to test and develop a practical knowledge of fundamental grammatical principles. At the close of the oral review exercise, the sentences on the blackboard are criticized and corrected, if need be, by members of the class.

A piece of connected English of moderate length is also assigned weekly as an exercise in Latin composition. A Latin version is to be written in ink, with the utmost legibility and neatness, on the left page of a book provided for the purpose. The exercise, after careful inspection by the instructor, is returned with criticisms of forms, syntax, idioms, and word-order, to be recopied on the opposite page. It has been found convenient to mark mistakes of form by a blue line, of syntax by a red line, in idiom or choice of words by a circle, and in word-order by dotted lines or numerals. The most important and valuable criticism is that which the earnest student bestows upon his own work before putting it into the hands of his instructor.

Every student is required to own and use Harpers' Latin Dictionary and Allen and Greenough's Latin Grammar. The most important rules for the pronunciation of Latin are given in the Cornell University Register, 1887-8, p. 133. The true quantity of every vowel should be distinctly given in pronunciation, and in writing Latin every long vowel should be marked by a horizontal stroke above. Diphthongs and short vowels may be left unmarked. Unless the studeut is already familiar with the so-called rules for the quantity of vowels in final and penultimate syllables, A. & G. §§ 348-353, he should learn A. & G. § 18, read the footnote on page 267, and review the tables of inflectional endings, §§ 34, 118. Harpers' Dictionary indicates the quantity of vowels followed by a single consonant in any syllable except the ultima of a word of more than one syllable. When a syllable is marked as common it is understood that its vowel is short. There remains the case of vowels in syllables long by position, upon whose quantity no light is thrown by Harpers' Dictionary. We are not told, e. g., whether the e of rectus is long or short. The true quantities of such doubtful vowels are indicated, so far as they have been ascertained, in the vocabularies appended to Allen's Latin Composition, Allen and Greenough's Cæsar and Cicero, Greenough's Virgil, and Lindsay's Nepos. The only accessible manual which attempts to give the quantities of all doubtful vowels is Marx's Hülfsbüchlein für die Aussprache der lateinischen Vokale in positionslangen Silben, Berlin, 1883. For the convenience of the student the most useful rules for the quantities of the doubtful vowels are printed at the end of this pamphlet, together with a list, derived from Marx's manual, of all the common Latin words in which long vowels are followed by two or more consonants.

The exercises in the writing of Latin during the fall term are taken mostly from the English-Latin part of Lindsay's Nepos. Twenty-five specimens of the longer exercises assigned in the winter and spring terms are given in this pamphlet. Of these a few are borrowed from the Oxford Local Examination Papers, and seven are adapted from Schmalz's Deutsche Vorlagen zum Uebersetzen ins Lateinische, Tauberbischofsheim, 1886.

EXERCISES.

Ι..

¹After the kings had been driven from the city, the Romans first took up arms for liberty. For Porsena, king of the Etrurians, was at hand² with a vast³ army, and attempting to restore⁴ the Tarquins by force. Though pressed by arms and famine, they held out against⁵ him, and at last struck⁶ him with such wonder, that he made a treaty of friendship with them of his own accord. Then occurred¹ those marvels⁶ achieved⁶ by Horatius Mutius and Cloelia, which at this day would appear idle tales, unless they were in the records.

'Use either postquam, cum, or the ablative absolute; ²adesse; ³ingens; ⁴reducere; ⁵sustinere; ²admiratione percellere; ³evenire; ²miracutum; ³edere.

II.

While Sulla was overcoming Mithridates in Achaia and Asia, Marius, who had been driven into exile, and Cornelius Cinna, one of the consuls, renewed the war in Italy, 'and having entered the city of Rome, put to death the most noble of the senators and men of consular rank, proscribed many, and drove the wife and children of Sulla himself into exile. All the rest of the senate, 'flying from the city, came to Sulla, in Greece, beseeching him to help his country. He crossed over into Italy, in order to carry on a civil war against the consuls and Scipio.

¹Begin a new sentence with *qui cum*, using one principal verb, "drove;" ²do not use the genitive; ³acc. or abl.? ⁴consider how many ways of expressing purpose are possible.

TII.

Thus the enemy surprised¹ the city, now almost in ruins, and pressed² the besieged with famine. Broken by these disasters,³ the Athenians sued for peace; but it was long debated between the Spartans and their allies whether peace ought to be granted them. Many were of opinion that the name of the Athenians ought to be blotted out, and their city burnt with fire.⁴ But the Spartans refused to pluck out⁵ one of the two eyes of Greece, and promised peace if the Athenians would pull down their walls towards the Piræns, and deliver up their remaining ships.

'Opprimere, cum-clause or abl. abs.; 'urgere; 'malum; 'incendio consumere; 'eruere.

IV.

Never yet had there met together¹ Roman forces greater (than these), or with better generals. They fought, however, with the greatest resolution²; and at last Pompeius was conquered, and his camp was sacked. He himself being put to flight, made for³ Alexandria, in order to receive help from the king of Egypt, to whom, on account of his youthful age, he had been assigned as guardian by the Senate. And he killed Pompeius, and sent his head and ring to Cæsar,⁴ and on beholding it, it is said that Cæsar shed tears.

'Convenire in unum; 'acriter; 'petere; 'who, after that he beheld it, is said, etc.

V.

Among the most aucient Latin writers were Quintus Fabius Pictor and Lucius Cincius Alimentus, who were both of mature age¹ before Hannibal invaded Italy. Fabius fought² in the war against the Gauls, rose to be a senator, and was sent to consult⁴ the Delphic oracle after the disaster of Caunæ. ⁵Cincius was a few years younger; he also became a senator. At one time he fell into the hands of Hannibal, and some of his statements about the war were de-

rived from the lips of the great Carthaginian himself. Both these authors wrote chronicles of the Second Punic War.

'grandis natu; 'militare; 'ssenatorium gradum consequi; 'ssciscitari; 'Put Cincius—Carthaginian himself in the form of a periodic sentence.

·VI.

¹When the Senate was informed that it was Hannibal's intention² to cross the Alps, it was at once resolved to send the consul Publius Scipio with an army and fleet to Gaul. Had he arrived with his fleet before Hannibal had left Spain, he might perhaps have stopped his progress; but the Romaus, who were not aware³ of the strength of their enemy, lost time⁴; and moreover, their army consisted for the most part of inexperienced recruits. As it turned out Hannibal had made himself master of Spain as far as the Pyrenees, before the Roman fleet under Scipio set sail from Italy.

¹Make Senatus the subject of the sentence; ²in animo habere; ³ignorare; ⁴tempus terere.

VII.

Matters being in this state, the Senate met and sent messengers to Cinna and Marius to invite them into the city, and to entreat them to spare the citizens. Cinna, as consul, sitting in his chair of office, received the messenger and sent a kind answer. Marius, however, who stood by the consul's chair, indicated by his gloomy look that he intended to fill Rome with slanghter. After the dismissal of the messengers, they marched to the city. Cinna entered accompanied by his soldiers, but Marius, halting at the gates, pretended that he was unwilling to enter; he said he was an exile, and excluded from his country by a law, and if anybody wished to have him in the city, they must go to the vote again and undo the law by which he had been banished.

'sella curulis; 'significare; 'abl. abs.; 'consistere; 'necesse esse; 'suffragium inire; 'abrogare.

VIII.

However great were the abilities of Alcibiades, it is universally agreed that no Athenian ever inflicted such injuries upon his native country. By his advice and influence the Athenians declared war against the Syracusans, in which they lost not only a great fleet and much money, but also many thousands of their fellow-citizens. Having been condemned on the ground that he had committed sacrilege, Alcibiades fled to Sparta, and advised the Lacedaemonians to seize and fortify Decelea, a town in Attica. Afterwards he falsely persuaded the Athenians that he could gain for them the aid of the Persian king, by which means he brought it about that he was recalled from exile.

sacra violare.

IX.

Thucydides believed that if the Athenians had not fought at Salamis, all Greece would have been conquered by the Persians. Nor were the services of Themistocles less in peace than in war. For when the Spartans tried to prevent the Athenians from surrounding the Piræus with walls, he went himself as an ambassabor to Sparta, and kept putting off the time of meeting their magistrates until the walls should be high enough for protection. Yet he did not escape the jealousy of his fellow-citizens, but died in exile.

X.

About ten years after the death of King Philip, Aemilius Paullus, the consul, fought with Perseus on the third of September, and defeated him, twenty thousand of his footsoldiers being slain; the cavalry with the king was untouched; of the Romans, one hundred soldiers were lost. All the cities of Macedonia, which the king had held, surrendered to the Romans. The king himself, being deserted by his friends, came into the power of Paullus. In order that it might appear that the Romans fought for equity more than for avarice, Paullus granted peace to the Mace-

donians on these terms, that they should be free, and should pay half the tribute which they had paid to their own kings.

'integer; 2se dedere; 3apparere; 4lex; 5praestare; 6dimidium; 7plural.

XI.

As the Lacedaemonians feared lest they should lose the hegemony if the Athenians enclosed their city with walls, they sent ambassadors who were to ask the Athenians not only to cease fortifying their city but also to persuade the neighboring states to do the same, on the ground that the Persians would occupy all fortified towns. The Athenians replied, that they would send ambassadors to Sparta to explain their plans. When Themistocles, who had undertaken the embassy, reached Sparta, he would not appear before the ephors until he thought that the walls were raised high enough for defense. Then he went to the magistrates of the Lacedaemonians, and told them plainly that in this matter they were consulting their own advantage rather than the safety of Greece.

'principatus; 'exponere; 'ut.

XII.

When Epaminondas was accused of having kept the command longer than was permitted by the laws, he made the following answer: "If I had not done this the whole army would have perished through the ignorance of the new leaders. But the laws, I think, were made not for the destruction but for the preservation of the state. Therefore I kept my command, and persuaded my colleagues to do the same, until Messene should be restored." Having said this, he asked only one thing of the judges: that it should be inscribed on his tomb that Epaminondas was punished with death by the Thebans because he had compelled them to conquer at Leuctra.

XIII.

TREBONIUS TO CICERO.

If you are in good health, it is well. I came to Athens on the twenty-first of June, and there, what I most desired, saw your son, devoted to the best pursuits, and of the highest reputation for modesty. How much pleasure I received from this you can understand, even if I am silent. For you know¹ how highly I esteem² you, and how I rejoice at all your advantages, even the least, not merely at so great a blessing (as this). Do not think, my Cicero, that I say this to flatter you:³ there is no one either more pleasing⁴ to those who live at Athens, or more fond of those studies⁵ which you most love, that is, the best, than your son. Accordingly I take pleasure⁶ in congratulating you, as I can do with truth. Farewell.

¹Use litotes; ²facio; ³atiquid alicuius auribus dare; ⁴amabilis; ⁵artes; ⁶tibenter.

XIV.

That divine poet, Sophocles, when a heavy golden libation-bowl¹ had been secretly stolen² from the temple of Hercules, saw in sleep³ the god himself telling who had done it. This he disregarded once and again. When the same thing (occurred) more frequently, he ascended to the Areopagus; he reported the matter. The Areopagites order him to be arrested who had been named by Sophocles. He, on examination,⁴ confessed, and brought back the bowl. On this account that shrine was called (the shrine) of Hercules the Discloser.⁵

¹patera; ²surripere; ³plural no.; ⁴quaestionem adhibere; ⁵Index.

XV.

When Hannibal had captured Saguntum, he thought¹ in sleep² that he was called into the council of the gods; when he had come hither, Jupiter commanded that he should make war upon Italy; and one of the council was given to him as a guide. Then the guide directed him not to look

back. He, however, could no longer do this, but, carried away with desire, looked back. Then he saw a terrible creature, huge and frightful, twined about with serpents, which overturned all the trees, bushes, and dwellings wherever it passed. And in astonishment he asked the god what such a monster (as this) was; and the god answered, that it was the devastation of Italy, and directed him to go straight on; he was not to concern himself as to) what was done behind him.

'videri; 'plural no.; 'sefferre; 'belua; 'immanis; 'circumplicare; 'virguttum; 'monstrum; 'pergere protinus; '10laborare.

XVI.

The shortness of your letter makes me also shorter in writing; and to tell the truth it does not readily occur (to me) what to write. For (news of) our doings,2 I know toa-certainty, is conveyed to you in the public journals; but of yours we are ignorant. For just as if Asia were in-astate-of-blockade, 5 nothing is brought 8 to us but rumors of the overthrow of Dolabella, (and) those consistent6 enough, indeed, but as yet without a voucher. When we supposed the war finished we were brought into extreme anxiety by your Lepidus. Therefore be persuaded that the greatest hope of the state lies in you and in your forces. We have steadfast armies, to be sure; but yet, in order that everything, as I hope, may turn out fortunately, it is of great importance that you come. In fact⁸ there is scanty hope of the state; for I do not like to say none-at all; but whatever there is is devoted9 to the year of your consulship. Farewell.

'satis; 'res; 'perferre; 'acta; 'clausus; 'constans; 'procedere; 'enim; 'despondere.

XVII.

When the consul Flamininus, who, as you know, was waging war against Philip, king of the Macedonians, by the authority of the senate, did not know in what way he should attack the enemy in order to conquer him, a shep-

herd approached him, and promised him that he would show him the way if a sufficient reward should be given him. The shepherd suspected that Flaminius was disquieted by day and by night because he lacked the opportunity to surround the enemy; and therefore he attempted to meet him and inform him of the enemy's position. believed that Flaminius would make every exertion and agree to any terms with him, if only he might be freed from the burden common to him with the soldiers, which, however, he bore as a true Roman with wise self-control. Flamininus did not refuse¹ to promise everything that the shepherd demanded of him, provided the way should not be concealed from him; for he did not doubt that the advice of the shepherd would remove all the hindrances of the campaign, 3 and bring it about 4 that he might pass the rest of the time without trouble. And the shepherd proved himself⁵ a faithful guide, and freed the consul from the burden which, he said, rested upon him more heavily than Etua

¹recusare; ²tollere; ³bellum; ¹efficere; ⁵se praestare; ʿa se sustineri.

XVIII.

After the disaster at Lake Trasimenus the Romans made Quintus Fabius dictator; for they hoped under his leadership to prevent Hannibal from approaching the city. And indeed, although Fabius was already advanced in years, he was so fortunate as to restrain by his endurance the youthfully vain-glorious Hannibal. However, Fabius most distinguished himself by recovering Tarentum, the loss of which was a severe blow to the Romans. For Salinator, according to Cicero's account, had surrendered the city and then fled into the citadel. Now it redounds to the highest honor of Fabius that, although he had received the name of the Delayer, he again attacked the city of Tarentum without delay. He easily defeated the soldiers who had been left behind as a guard to the town, and gained possession of the fortifications. Therefore do not believe that it

was on account of coward.ce⁴ that Fabius hesitated⁵ to meet⁶ the dangers of war or expose himself⁷ to the missiles of the enemy. He perceived that he could save the state only by delay, and therefore he took care⁸ not to attack Hannibal and his army; for he used to say, that the welfare of the state was his greatest⁹ care, and that he believed he acted under the best auspices when, for the welfare of the state, he did what he had judged most proper.¹⁰

¹clades; ²contingere; ²aegre ferre; ⁴ignavia; °cunctari; °se opponere; ¹se obicere; °cavere; °summus; ¹ºaptus.

XIX.

Of all the Grecian poets whose works have been preserved, we admire Sophocles most; for down to extreme old age he wrote tragedies which, as is well known, are so beautiful in thought and expression that they are worthy of the admiration not only of the Athenians, but of all cultitivated men. This Sophocles, when ninety years of age, was accused by his own sons of neglecting his property on account of his devotion¹ to literature. And there is no doubt but that the judges would have removed him, as an imbecile, from the control of his estate, had not the poet recited to them a part of the drama which he had last composed. At this recitation the judges were so delighted that they earnestly reproved the grasping sons, and set the old man at liberty.

¹studium.

XX.

In the time of Pyrrhus the highest esteem was enjoyed by the aged Appius Claudius, a man with regard to whom I do not know whether his fellow citizens or his dependents held him dearer. In the house of this man patriarchal custom and discipline flourished. By his own merits, not those of others, he had brought it about that his slaves feared him and his children reverenced him. In short, if any one in Rome deserved admiration, he did. The aged Cato imitated him in all things: he came frequently into the senate,

and of his own accord brought forward many maturely considered proposals; and if the state had always agreed to these, it would have escaped many disasters. But while the aged Appius, as a genuine Roman, proclaimed² his contempt for everything foreign, Cato busied himself³ thoroughly⁴ with Greek literature, and esteemed the philosophers highly, a class of men which at that time had little influence in Rome. He took most delight in the renowned⁵ Pythagoras, who directed⁶ his disciples every day at evening to review what they had done, said, and heard. In my opinion Cato from his own inclination attached himself to philosophy, and that¹ the strictest; for he perceived that if he labored and exerted himself⁶ in this, he would be most useful to the state.

¹ Use act. voice; sin lucem proferre; ³versari in; ⁴penitus; ⁵A. & G. § 102 b; ⁴praescribere; ³Harpers' Dict., atque I. B. b δ ; ⁴desudare atque elaborare.

XXI.

Plato, the greatest philosopher whom Greece has produced, came, as I find, to Italy in the consulship of Camil-Ins and Claudius. In order to gain the friendship of Archytas of Tarentum, who at that time was distinguished above all the other inhabitants of Lower Italy for wisdom, he betook himself to Tarentum, and there was present at a conversation which the aged Cato says was reported to him when he was in this city in his youth. Also Gaius Pontius of Samnium, the father of the conqueror at Caudium, was present at that time. He had shown himself wise throughout his entire life, so that the Samnites with good reason placed the greatest confidence2 in him, and availed themselves of his advice whenever they seemed to At⁸ this conversation Archytas, being asked need advice. why sensual pleasure seemed to him so contemptible that he abstained from all enjoyments, answered that he did this because sensual pleasure seemed to him to be the most pernicious plague with which nature afflicted man. was no evil deed to which Pleasure did not incite those who trusted in her; while to the understanding, that divine gift, there was nothing so hostile as Pleasure. Those present were not to wonder that this was so detestable to him; for all the (instances of) betrayal of native land, overturning of states, which had occurred in his lifetime, had proceeded from this source. Therefore the man who cared for his own interests must reject pleasure, and attach himself to no one who wished to lead him to her.

'ferre; ²use a verb; ³inter; ⁴A. & G. & 294 a; ⁵vexare; ^cvero; ⁷qui adest; ⁸se vivo; ⁹sibi consulere; ¹⁰A. & G. & 105 h.

XXII.

Xenophon the Athenian, whose writings Cicero urges all young people to read diligently, esteemed agriculture so highly that in the book entitled Oeconomicus he extolled it with the highest praises.2 And he did not only himself recommend⁸ agriculture, but he represents⁴ the Persian prince Cyrus also as magnifying⁵ the same (profession). Lysander namely, the victor at Aegos Potami, tells about the following story6: "I came by the command of the Spartans to Sardis, in order to deliver to Cyrus, whose help we hoped to obtain against Athens, the presents of the allies. This, indeed, I had already heard, that Cyrus surpassed all princes in affability8; but yet I must confess that he showed himself much more friendly than I had dared to hope. Among other beautiful things he also showed me a carefully planted enclosed field. When I asked him who had so beautifully laid out and arranged all this, 10 he said: "Are you surprised that these rows and this arrangement come from me? Let me tell you" that many of these trees were planted by my own hand." Then I exclaimed: "Now I wonder no longer, Cyrus, that people consider you happy, since in your case (personal) merit is joined to high station. I do not doubt that all peoples of all times will agree¹² that you have been an illustrious¹³ man. me, therefore, to relate to the allies,-for you know how dear you are to these, -what a man I have found in you."

'magni aestimare; 'Lael. vii, 24; 'probare; 'facere, Sen. 3; 'blaudibus celebrare; 'haec fere narrat; 'iam ante; 'humanitas or communitas; 'suse a participle; '1°pl.; '1'atqui tibi dico; '1'consentire; '1'aegregius.

XXIII.

Cyrus the Elder, the founder of the Persian empire, according to Xenophon, is said to have held about the following discourse on his death-bed in the presence of his sons, of whom the elder. Cambyses, was destined to succeed him in the government. Do not believe, my sons, that I, after my departure from you, shall be nowhere existent; for it is impossible that the soul, whose presence you inferred from my actions, when it is freed from the chains of the body, is annihilated. Or do you really believe, as some insignificant philosophers teach, that with the dissolution of the human constitution by death there comes an end of our existence? I for my part, at least, cannot be convinced that I should have founded the Persian empire and actually accomplished² all that I have done, if that spirit had not ruled in this body, whose dissolution, as you perceive, is at hand.3 Do we not see that men in sleep, when they are independent and free, have a prescience of the future? So much the more must you believe that men, when by death they have entirely freed themselves from the chains of the body, will truly live, and that nothing will any longer disturb them in the perception of all things. Under these circumstances you will keep6 my memory piously and inviolately, and will cherish the firm confidence that after the course of a short time we shall be together again.

¹persuadere; ºconficio; ³instare; ¹futura prospicere; ⁵servare; ⁰fiduciam habere.

XXIV.

If William, the emperor of Germany, who has recently died, had lived till the twenty-second of March of this year, he would have completed ninety-one years. And yet no one ever heard him say that he regretted having lived so

long. He, as a boy, like² Hannibal the Carthaginian, accompanied his father to the army, and distinguished himself in war. But in this respect he was happier than Hannibal, in that the end of his life was more fortunate than the beginning. While the Carthaginian, in his old age, was obliged to take poison to avoid falling into the power of his enemies, the illustrious emperor of Germany increased, even to the last, in honor and the dignity of his government. To be brief, his enemies feared him, the German people loved him, all Europe respected him. Who can doubt that to such a man, at least, old age is not merely endurable but even pleasant.

Guilielmus; 'sicut.

XXV.

A strong proof that old age is not always a period of weakness and folly is the fact, that the emperor of the German people, who died within the last year, sitting as it were in the stern of the ship, even to his last breath kept the helm of state. At the age of more than ninety years he retained so much of his original vigor as to perform all the duties and functions of a king. Granted that he did not do what young men do, yet he did much greater and better things. For my part, I am inclined to think that it was a greater work to unite all the petty states of Germany than to vanquish the armies of the French in war. And both these most difficult tasks King William accomplished when he was already an old man.

APPENDIX.

Rules for the quantity of vowels before two consonants:

1. A vowel is long before gm, gn, e. g. māgnus.

A vowel is lengthened and nasalized before nf, ns, e. g. fons, mons.

A vowel is short before nd, nt, e. g. montis.

Exc. contio, nuntius, quintus, nondum, prendo, vendo. Note.—Vowels which are the result of contraction are long.

2. All nouns of the third declension ending in two or more consonants, except ns and x, have a short vowel in the final syllable, e. g. urbs, urbis, sors, sortis, $r\bar{e}x$, $r\bar{e}gis$.

Exc. plēbs, plēbis, supellēx, suppellēctilis, and nouns derived from ūncia.

- 3. Verb-stems strengthened by n have a short vowel in all forms based on the present stem, e. g. $f \tilde{u} n d \tilde{o}$, $i \tilde{u} n g \tilde{o}$, but $f \tilde{u} d \tilde{i}$, $i \tilde{u} n x \tilde{i}$.
- 4. In general, the vowel quantity of the present stem remains unchanged in all forms which have a consonantal ending, e. g.

vīvō vīvere, vīxī, vīctum.

gerō, gerere, gessī, gestum.

Exc. $d\bar{u}c\bar{o}$, $d\bar{u}cere$. $d\bar{u}x\bar{\imath}$, $d\bar{u}ctum$; $d\bar{\imath}c\bar{o}$, $d\bar{\imath}cere$, $d\bar{\imath}x\bar{\imath}$, $d\bar{\imath}ctum$.

But if a present stem with short vowel, ending in a middle mute, b, d, g, suffers loss or assimilation of its final consonant in the perfect or supine, the stem vowel becomes long, e. g.

agō, agere, ēgī, āctum.

spargō, spargere, spārsī, spārsum.

After the same analogy we find the stem vowel lengthened in the perfect and supine of *fluō*, *struō*, *trahō*, which have each lost a middle mute from the present stem.

5. Inchoatives derived from verbs of the first, second, and fourth conjugations retain the long stem vowel of their primitives, e. g. labāscō, fllorēscō, scīscō.

LIST OF LATIN WORDS

IN WHICH A VOWEL LONG BY NATURE IS FOL-LOWED BY TWO OR MORE CONSONANTS.

NOTE.—In the case of some of these words the evidence of vowel length is incomplete, and future researches may lead to changes of opinion. For the statement of the evidence on which the marking is based, see Marx's Hülfsbüchlein, a copy of which can be found in the Cornell University Library.

bārdus.

acatalēctus. ācta āctiō āctūtum. Adrāstus, ลิชนจระจั 3. Alcēstis. Alecto. aliörsum. alīptēs. Amāzōn. anınēstia. amvgdala. āufrāctus. āuxius. Anxur. Appulus Apulus. Aquillius. arātrum. ārdeō 2. Arginūssae. Arrūns Arūus. ascendo 3. āscia. Asclēbiadēs. Asculum. āspernor 1. asportō 1. āssus. āstus -ūs. ästūtus. āthla. ātrium. āxāmenta. āxilla, āxis.

balbūttiö balbūtiö 4.

bārrītus bārītus. bēllua bēlua. bēssis bēsis. bēstia. bimēnstris bimēstris. Bovillae. brāccae brācae. būstum. cabāllus. calūmnia. cārrus. Cāssandra, Cāssiopē. catalecticus. catēlla. catīllus. Cēohīssus Cēphīsus. cēssō 1. cētra. Charondas. chirurgus, cicātrīx. Cincius. cippus cipus. clāssis. Cnōssus. cognosco 3. cohors and chors. collecta. compēscō 3. confestim. coniunx, contio. corōlla. crābrõ,

crāstinus. cresco 3. Crēssa. Crēssius. crībrum. crīspus. Crīspīnus. Crīssa Crīsa, criista. crüstum. cünctus. ciistõs.

dāmma dāma. dēformis. dělűbrum. Dēmētrius. dēstinō 1. definy. dëxtāns. dextrorsus. diëspiter. dilēmma. dīscidium. dīscipulus. disco 3. dīscrībō 3. dīspiciō 3. dīstinguō 3. dīstō 1. dīstringō 3. dödráns. dolābra. duümvir. Dyrrachium.

ébrius. eclipsis. ēlīxus. ēnārmis. epidicticus. Erinnys Erinys. ēsca. Esquiliae. Etrüscus. exīstimō 1. exőrdium. expérgiscor 3.

fāstīgium. fāstus -ūs pride. fästidium. fāstus permitted. fatīsco fatīscor 3. fēllō fēlō. fēstīnā 1. fēstīnus. fēstūca. fēstus Fēstus. Fībrēnus. f ictilis. fīrmus Fīrmus Fīrmum. f īssilis. fīstūca. fīstula. flābrum. flüctus. förma. főrmősus. fossa. frūctus -ūs. früstrā. früstum. fiilmen. fürtum. fūscina. Füscius. füscus Füscus. füstis.

gărriō 4. gārrulus. Garūnua Garūna. geögraphia. geōrgicus. gībbus. glīscō 3. glössärium. glösséma, glūttiō glūtiō 4. grāllae. grāssor 1.

fūttilis fūtilis.

grūnniō grūndiō 4. gūstō 1. gūstus -ūs.

Halicarnāssus. hällücinor hälücinor 1. Hellespontus. hēlluō hēluō. hīllae. hīrcus. Hirpi. Hirpini. hīrsūtus. Hīrtius. hīrtus.

Hīspō Hīspulla, hõrnus. hörsum. Hüunī Hūnī.

hīscō 3.

Hīspellum.

hīspidus.

ieutāculum. iēntātiō. īguōscō 3. Ilīssus Ilīsus. illörsum. Īllyria. īmmō īmō. īnfēstus. införmis iulūstris. īnstīllō 1. īnstīnctus -ūs. intervāllum. intrātsum involūcrum. Iōlcus. īrāscor 3. istorsum. iūglāns. iūncus. Iüppiter. iūrgō 1. iūrgium. iūstus.

lābrum basin. laevõrsum. lāmua. lärdum. Ļārīssa Ļarīsa.

Iūstīnus.

iūxtim.

iūxtā.

lāscīvus. 1ลีรรบร. lātrō 1. lavābrum. lavācrum. lāxus. lāxö. lectio lector. lēmma. lémuiscus. Lèmnos. lentīscus. lībra. 1ictor līmpidus. līttera. līxīvus. longinguus. lübricus. 1ñcta lūctus -ūs. lüscinia. lüstrum explation. lūstrō 1. lūxus -ūs. lūxuria.

lārva.

Lycurgus.

māctus.

mālle.

māctō 1.

manifēstus. Mānlius. manüpretium. Mārcellus. Mārcus. Mārs Mārtis. Mārsī. Mārtiālis. māssa. māxilla. māximus. mercēnuārius. Messālla. Métrodorus. mētropolis.

mīlvus. mīsceo 2. mīttō 3. Mõstellāria. mūceus mūcus. mūcrō. mületra mületrum.

mīlle.

pāscō 3.

mūlleus. mūsça. mūscerda. mūsculus. mūscus. (mūsso 1. mūstēla.

Nārnia. nārrō 1. nāscor 3. nāssa. nāssiterna nāsiterna. nāsturtium. nelästus. nīctō nīctor 1. nõll: . nöndum. nōugentī. nõnne. Nōrba. nōrma. nōscō 3. nüllus. nūncupō 1. nüudinae nündinum. nüntiö 1. nüntius.

Oenōtria. ōlla. ดิสตล. orchēstra. ordior 4. ōrdō. ōrnō 1. öscen. ōscitō 1. ösculum. ősculor 1. östendö 3. Östia. östium. östrum. ovīllus. Ōxus.

nüptiae.

nūtriō 4.

nütrīx.

nūsquam.

Nyssa Nysa,

palūster. pānnus pānus. Parnāssus Parnāsus.

pāssim. pāssus -ūs. pāstillus. pāstor. pāstus -ūs. กลัxillus. pērgō 3. periclitor. pēssum dő 1. Phoenīssa. pictor. pīlleus -um pīleus -um. pinguis. pīstor. Pīstōria. pistrine. plēbs. plēctrum. Plēmmyrium. plöstellum. poëtria poëtris. polliuctor pollictor. Pōlliō. pōsca. põscō 3. põstulō 1. Prāxitelēs. prendo 3. prīmordium. princeps. Prīsciānus. prīscus. prīstinus. processus -ūs. procinctus -ūs. Procrūstēs. protēstus. prölīxus.

quārtus. quiesco 3.

promiscuus.

propīuquus.

prörsus prörsum.

promptus.

prösper.

protector.

Pūblicola.

nūlmō.

pulvillus.

pūrgō 1.

pūblicus.

Pūblius.

pūstula pūsula.

quinctilis Quinctilius. quincūnx. quinquātrūs. auinaue. quiudecim. quintus Quintilianus. etc. quippe. quōrsus. rāstrum. reāpse. recēssus -ūs. rēctus. retrorsum. rictus -ūs. tīva rīxor 1. röscidus. Rőscius. röstrum rūctō rūctor 2. rūrsus. rūscus. rūsticus.

Sāllentīnī Sālentīnī. Sāllustius Sālustius. Sārmatae. Sārsina Sāssina. sceptrum. scīscō 3. scrīptor. sēcēssiō. sēlla. sēmēstris. sēmūncia. septūnx -ūncis. sēscentī. séscüncia. sēscuplus. Sesōstris. sēsaui. sēssiō. sēstertius. Sēstius. Sēstos Sēstiī. simulācrum. sīnciput. sinistrōrsus. sīstrum. sõbrius. Socratés. sölstitium. sõspes.

Sphīnx. spīnter. stāunum stāguum. stīlla. strēnna strēna. strüctor. stūppa stūpa. subsēllium. succēssus -ūs. suēscō 3. suïllus. sūmptus -ūs. supellex -ectilis. sūpparum sūparum. sūrculus. sūrgō 3. sūrsum. sūscipiō 3. sūscitō 1. süspicor 1. sŭstineō 2. etc. süsque dēque. Sūtrium. syllēpis.

tāctus -ūs. Tartēssus, tāxillus. tāxō 1. Tecmēssa. tēctum.
tērsus.
terūncius.
tēsta.
tēsta tēstor 1.
tēstū tēstum.
tēstūdō.
theātrum.
trāctō 1.
trēssis trēsis.
trimēstris.
trinūndinum.
trīstis.
trōsvalī.

vāsculum. vāstus. vāstō 1. Vēctis. vēgrandis. Vēlābrum. Venāfrum. vēndō 3. vērnus. vēstibulum.

vēstīgium.

Tüscī.

Tūsculum.

vállum vállus.

Vēstīuī.
vēxillum.
vīctus -ūs.
vīlla.
vīndēmia.
Vīpsānius.
Vīpstānus,
vīscera.
vīscum.
Vīstula.

ūllus.
ūltra.
ūlterior etc.
ūlva.
ūndecim.
ūndevīgintī etc.
ūnguis.
ūngula.
Vopīscus.
ūrceus.
ūrna.
ūrtīca.
ūspiam ūsquam.

ūsque.

ūstrīna.

ūsūrpō 1.















